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THE ARTIFICIAL ICE AT THE COLOSSEUM.

skating. The composition has exactly the appearance of real ice, and in its use has seemingly every property which the experienced skater can desire. We saw several excellent skaters figure upon this apparent sheet of ice, to the gratification of an assemblage of the fair sex, who were highly pleased with the view afforded them. Mr. Kirk, the inventor and patentee, assured us that the composition remains good at one hundred degrees, and that when the Skating Club gave their approval of it, they skated in an atmosphere of eighty-five. It is about one inch in thickness, which is sufficient to last, with ordinary skating, at least two years, and though it may require repairing occasionally, that is attended with little or no expense. It is composed of crystal salts, principally sodas, which are rendered liquid, and flooded on the prepared level floor intended to form the Glaciarium. The expense is by no means great; in fact, not half the cost of a billiard-room, which is to be found in every hotel. Thus this favourite sport of our youth, this exercise which is so exhilarating to the spirits, invigorating to the frame, and which imparts grace and energy to the form, may be indulged in at our own fire-side, let it be winter or summer, without that drawback of former times—amidst so much that is pleasurable—the melancholy loss of life, which was the sure result of every skating season. We understand that the present is only an epitome of a more extensive establishment, to be entitled the Glaciarium and Frozen Lake, which is to exhibit an extent of ice of 300 feet by 130, surrounded by Alpine scenery. The ice is to be preserved for the skaters, while the visitors may ramble in fanciful reality through Swiss villages, loiter in cottages, loll on benches, or take a view of the sports below from romantic bridges, and make themselves believe that, in summer's height, they are abroad contemplating the beauties of winter.

The best time to view the artificial ice at the Colosseum is in the evening, for the Alpine scenery—the rocks covered with hoar-frost, and bedecked with icicles—have a singularly beautiful effect when seen by gaslight. The Swiss cottage, where refreshments are always to be had, is also entitled to the visitor's attention.

BYRON'S HEROINES.

LORD BYRON, more than any author of his age, has excited the attention of the public, and exercised the pens of his contemporaries; but hackneyed as the theme has become, we have still to learn that any observations have been exclusively directed to the consideration of his female portraits. This is the more surprising when we call to me-

mory the vast influence which women possessed in the direction and formation of his character; that from his earliest childhood until the day of his death, they were the stars—

"Which rose, and set not to the last."

the good and evil angels who accompanied him to the brink of the grave. Though all have simultaneously acquiesced in believing that he sat himself for the portrait of his heroes, none have cared to ask whether his heroines were drawn from his imagination or his experience, and how far they discredited the former and belied the latter. And yet, in studying such a life as Byron's, in which, unlike that of most men, love, instead of being an episode, was an occupation, this is no unimportant question. He has himself acknowledged Medora to be a sketch from nature; and we think ourselves able to detect in the delineation of Gulnare some remembrance of the beautiful Spaniard who, in his youth, addressed him, if not in the following words, at least to their effect—

"Soffri eh' io ti spieghi l'ardor di questo sen,
Soffri ch' io ti dico l'amor mio."

Now, however flattering this may be to a man's vanity, it is generally revolting to his ideas of propriety; and Conrad is unable to bestow upon Gulnare, in return for the life and liberty she purchases for him at the expense of all most sacred to her sex, more than his pity and an extorted gratitude. Nor can we discern in "Lara" (which is supposed to be a continuation of the "Corsair") that Kaled ever replaced the lost one in her master's heart. That Conrad *could* love with a tenderness, an entireness, an unselfishness, usually supposed to belong more exclusively to the love of women, is shewn in that beautiful passage commencing with,

"None are all evil," &c.

and that its author believed in the existence of such a passion, and had fortune smiled propitiously upon him, would have experienced it, the whole story of his career, his follies, his virtues, nay, his very vices, inform us. But the conception of Gulnare as a whole is a most mistaken one; in striving to obliterate the "damning spot" of her guilt, Byron endows her with a timid love—a submissive deportment suited only to Medora. In real life, a Gulnare, who, if not scorned, was at least but tolerated, would have given vent to feelings of rage or revenge on finding another preferred to herself; or she might have obtained her lover's life by the sacrifice of her own, but that she should accompany him submissively and almost contentedly on his return to Medora, is contrary to probability. From this and his other poems we feel persuaded

that Lord Byron would have found an insuperable difficulty in consistently and forcibly depicting the characteristics of a bad woman, so deeply does he appear to have been imbued (despite the levity and recklessness that he occasionally assumed) with a sense of the beauty and value of female virtue. The most natural and engaging of his delineations is "Myrrha;" her love for Sardanapalus is not a selfish, quiescent love, but one which urged him on to masculine exertion and noble deeds, in the execution of which she might have been forgotten; her meekness under the reproaches of Salamenes; her subsequent disinterested eulogium of him; the whole tenour of her conduct during the scene that takes place between her and Sardanapalus, after his interview with the Queen, in which he by turns displays caprice, peevishness, and vanity, is most noble and affecting, and while we exult in the sentiments of the heroine, we commiserate the abasement of the slave, and sigh over the sorrows of the erring woman. There is nothing in Myrrha preposterous or overstrained; she does not give utterance to her feelings in the cold sententious style of Angiolina, whom the Doge addresses constantly as "my child." Where is the "abandon" of the petted girl, the playful confidence of the idolized wife, the half coaxing, half reverential tone in which one so young and so adored would have conversed with a husband and benefactor, who, in her presence alone, forgot his age and his dignities; nevertheless, the halo of rectitude encircling Angiolina makes us reverence, though we cannot love her. Perhaps even here Byron might have sketched from his experience, although he completed the picture from imagination. Alas! he is not the only man who has cherished the bitter, but false belief, that for a woman to be virtuous and to be disagreeable are synonymous terms. Marina, in the "Two Foscari," is likewise a signal failure; our author, doubtless, wished to invest her with the stoical deportment of a Spartan or Roman matron; but instead of such an one, he has created a virago, whose caustic and revengeful tongue ceases not even in the presence of her unhappy husband, and is incapable of being silenced by the sight of his death. Yet once again the charm of conjugal tenderness is introduced to sweeten what otherwise would be harsh and displeasing. Marina, to all beside a tigress, to Jacobo is a dove. Do not these numerous instances shew what Byron would have deemed "the haven of his happiness," had his heart ever been permitted to rest unmolested? But notwithstanding his errors in the conception of the female character, no other modern author has, on so confined a stage, succeeded in bestowing thereon such varied interest; though his

heroines are made subservient to the one ruling principle of love, which is the Promethean fire by which they all are animated, yet in each it assumes a dissimilar appearance, productive of widely differing results; and memory, while surveying the group, continually recalls the infinite caprices and vagaries indulged in by Cupid, as he guided the hand of this most abject of his slaves. F. A. H.

New Books.

Ainsworth's Magazine, No. VII.

THIS number contains five additional chapters of the "Miser's Daughter;" in the fourth, all the characters yet introduced into the story are eagerly pressing forward to Ranelagh Gardens, where a grand masquerade is to take place. These gardens having now no existence, a description of them from the graphic pen of Mr. Ainsworth, during their most flourishing condition, will gratify most of our readers.

RANELAGH GARDENS.

"And now, before entering Ranelagh, it may be proper to offer a word as to its history. Alas! for the changes and caprices of fashion! This charming place of entertainment, the delight of our grandfathers and grandmothers, the boast of the metropolis, the envy of foreigners, the renowned in song and story, the paradise of hoops and wigs, is vanished,—numbered with the things that were! And we fear there is little hope of its revival. Ranelagh, it is well known, derived its designation from a nobleman of the same name, by whom the house was erected, and the gardens, esteemed the most beautiful in the kingdom, originally laid out. Its situation adjoined the Royal Hospital at Chelsea; and the date of its erection was 1690-1. Ranelagh House, on the death of the earl, in 1712, passed into the possession of his daughter, Lady Catherine Jones; but was let, about twenty years afterwards, to two eminent builders, who re-let it to Lacy, afterwards patentee of Drury Lane Theatre, and commonly called Gentleman Lacy, by whom it was taken with the intention of giving concerts and breakfasts within it, on a scale far superior, in point of splendour and attraction, to any that had been hitherto attempted. In 1741, the premises were sold by Lacy to Messrs. Crispe and Meyonnet for 4000*l.*, and the rotunda was erected in the same year by subscription. From this date, the true history of Ranelagh may be said to commence. It at once burst into fashion, and its entertainments being attended by persons of the first quality, crowds flocked in their train. Shortly after its opening, Crispe became the sole lessee;

and in spite of the brilliant success of the enterprise, shared the fate of most lessees of places of public amusement, being declared bankrupt in 1744. The property was then divided into thirty shares, and so continued until Ranelagh was closed. The earliest entertainments of Ranelagh were morning concerts, consisting chiefly of oratorios, produced under the direction of Michael Festing, the leader of the band; but evening concerts were speedily introduced, the latter, it may be mentioned, to shew the difference of former fashionable hours, commencing at half-past five, and concluding at nine. Thus it began, but towards its close, the gayest visitors to Ranelagh went at midnight, just as the concerts were finishing, and remained there till three or four in the morning. In 1754, the fashionable world were drawn to Ranelagh by a series of amusements called *Comus's Court*; and notwithstanding their somewhat questionable title, the revels were conducted with great propriety and decorum. A procession which was introduced was managed with great effect, and several mock Italian duets were sung with remarkable spirit. Almost to its close, Ranelagh retained its character of being the finest place of public entertainment in Europe, and to the last, the rotunda was the wonder and delight of every beholder. The coup d'œil of the interior of this structure was extraordinarily striking, and impressed all who beheld it for the first time with surprise. It was circular in form, and exactly one hundred and fifty feet in diameter. Round the lower part of the building ran a beautiful arcade, the intervals between each arch being filled up by alcoves. Over this was a gallery with a balustrade, having entrances from the exterior, and forming a sort of upper boxes. Above the gallery was a range of round-headed windows, between each of which was a carved figure supporting the roof, and forming the terminus of the column beneath. At first, the orchestra was placed in the centre of the amphitheatre, but being found exceedingly inconvenient, as well as destructive of the symmetry of the building in that situation, it was removed to the side. It contained a stage capable of accommodating thirty or forty chorus-singers. The original site of the orchestra was occupied by a large chimney, having four faces enclosed in a beautifully-proportioned hollow, hexagonal column, with arched openings at the sides, and a balustrade at the base. Richly moulded, and otherwise ornamented with appropriate designs, this enormous column had a charming effect, and gave a peculiar character to the whole amphitheatre. A double range of large chandeliers descended from the ceiling; others were placed within the column above-mentioned, and every al-

cove had its lamp. When all these chandeliers and lamps were lighted, the effect was wonderfully brilliant. The external diameter of the rotunda was one hundred and eighty-five feet. It was surrounded on the outside by an arcade similar to that within, above which ran a gallery, with a roof supported by pillars, and defended by a balustrade. The main entrance was a handsome piece of architecture, with a wide, round-arched gate in the centre, and a lesser entrance at either side. On the left of the rotunda stood the Earl of Ranelagh's old mansion, a structure of some magnitude, but with little pretension to beauty, being built in the formal Dutch taste of the time of William of Orange. On the right, opposite the mansion, was a magnificent conservatory, with great pots of aloes in front. In a line with the conservatory, and the side entrance of the rotunda, stretched out a long and beautiful canal, in the midst of which stood a Chinese fishing-temple, approached by a bridge. On either side of the canal were broad gravel walks, and alleys shaded by lines of trees, and separated by trimly-clipped hedges. The gardens were exquisitely arranged with groves, bowers, statues, temples, wildernesses, and shady retreats."

The perusal of the lively scenes that follow this description, not only amuses, but the diversity in the ranks of the masqueraders, leads one to reflect on the changes which have taken place in the social condition of the country. The next chapter is of stirring interest. Beau Villiers designs the abduction of Hilda, but he is frustrated by Jacob Post and Randolph; the latter, however, gets involved in a quarrel with Sir Norfolk Salusbury, as well as with the Beau; the result is, a couple of duels. The duel between Randolph and Villiers, in Tothill Fields, and the supper at Vauxhall, are the two subjects of illustration by George Cruikshank.

The other articles are quite equal in merit to those of preceding numbers; amongst them, is a condensed and well-written account, by W. F. Ainsworth, of the more important papers which were read before the British Association for the Advancement of Science, which met at Manchester in June last. The number is concluded with a description of a Visit to the General Cemetery at Kensal Green, by Laman Blanchard: the article is written in admirable unison with the subject, and is profusely illustrated by W. A. Delamotte.

Miscellaneous.

WYER'S CAVE, VIRGINIA.

ALTOGETHER, this cave may be regarded as one of the most extraordinary produc-

tions of this or any other country; and it alone is well worth a voyage across the Atlantic to visit.

THE DRAGON-ROOM.

THE entrance to the Cave is in the northern side of a hill, about 300 feet high from the base, and the ascent to this is by a steep narrow zigzag path, about half-way up the hill in perpendicular height, but measuring at least 100 yards in length, and only to be ascended on foot. A small gate, secured by a lock, guarded the entrance; before passing through which, the fee of a dollar for each person entering the Cave must be paid to the proprietor. From this entrance, the descent is first made through a low and narrow passage, which gets gradually lower and lower, from ten feet at the beginning to about four feet in the middle. This obliged all who entered to stoop considerably, and almost to crawl down the latter part of the passage in a south-west direction, and at an angle of about twenty degrees. At twenty-four feet beyond the entrance, the passage widens and becomes more lofty, and this brings you to the first apartment. This is called the Dragon's Room, from a fancied resemblance of some of the stalactites hanging from the roof to the creature whose name it bears. In this room, the centre of which is thirty feet high, there is a singular cavernous recess, overhanging the aperture from behind, which is called the Devil's Gallery, for what reason we could not learn.

SOLOMON'S TEMPLE AND THE RADISH-ROOM.

FROM hence onward, the way leads through a long and narrow passage, sixty-six feet in length, three feet in breadth, and twelve in height. At the end of this is a perpendicular descent of thirteen feet, by means of a ladder placed there for the purpose. This brings you into a larger apartment, of irregular shape, about thirty feet long, forty-five broad, and forty feet high. This is called Solomon's Temple, from the abundance of the beautiful masses of stalactites, which are now seen in the richest clusters and most fanciful groupings all around. One portion of it has the name of Solomon's Throne, from its resemblance to an elevated and elaborately adorned seat. In utter defiance of the "unities," however, another mass of stalactites has received the name of the Falls of Niagara, from their striking resemblance to a grand cataract foaming over a perpendicular cliff, and suddenly arrested by the process of petrification in their descent.

To the left of this apartment, and nearly in the centre of the floor, rises a large isolated stalagmite, like a column springing from the ground, and this is called Solo-

mon's Pillar. Still onward to the left, beyond this, is another apartment, the roof of which is thickly studded with the most beautiful stalactites, descending perpendicularly, of various shapes and sizes, but producing altogether an effect greatly superior to the fretted roof of any Gothic hall or gorgeous chancel of any cathedral in Europe. When the lights of the party were all raised high against this splendid roof, it sparkled as if powdered with the dust of diamonds, and was altogether the richest thing I had ever beheld; yet so unfortunate are the Americans generally in their nomenclature, that they could invent no better name for this exquisitely-roofed chamber than that of the Radish-Room, from the pointed and tapering form of the stalactites dropping from it.

BARNEY'S HALL AND THE LAWYER'S OFFICE, ETC.

RETRACING OUR steps from hence back to the Temple of Solomon, we passed onward in the original line of direction, about south-west, and came to another ladder, by which we ascended a height of twelve feet, to an upper level. This brought us to what is called the Porter's Lodge, an apartment of inferior interest, lessening in height from thirty feet to ten feet, and being about fifty feet in length and fifteen in breadth. Here we entered the room called Barney's Hall, the said Barney being an old commodore of the American navy, who was rendered popular from some exploit performed with a cannon at Bladensburg, the hero himself being represented by an upright stalagmite, and his great gun lying beside him in a prostrate attitude, of a circular form, and of the ordinary dimensions of a ship's cannon.

The main passage of the Cave here turns to the right, in a westerly direction; but if the visitor diverges to the left, instead of pursuing the main passage, he will find three highly interesting rooms, which are not always shewn, but are well worth a visit. These are—First, the Lawyer's Office, a large, irregularly shaped room, where desks, boxes, and parchment rolls, have suggested to the fanciful the name bestowed; and in which a delicious draught of water may always be procured by the collected drops of a pure crystal fluid oozing through the roof, and collected in a little reservoir below. Secondly, Bernard Wyer's Hall, so called in honour of the discoverer of the cave, a hunter of this name, who, in 1804, while ranging these hills in pursuit of game, discovered this to be the retreat of a ground-hog, who had carried off his traps, and secreted them within the mouth of the cave. The pursuit and slaughter of this animal led Wyer to see enough of the interior of this cavernous retreat, to desire to

explore it further, and by his enterprise its beauties were first brought to light. In the chamber or hall bearing his name are two figures, which, by a little aid of the imagination, may be transferred into the daring hunter and his faithful dog. Thirdly, The Arsenal, or, as it is sometimes also called, The Armory, where a very beautiful incrustation of stalactitic matter has received the appropriate name of The Shield of Ajax; and where other accompaniments of an armory may be traced around.

From this digression from the main course of the cave, it is necessary to return again to Barney's Hall, and proceeding onward from thence, we came next, by a low passage of not more than five feet in height, to the Twin Room, in which there are two stalagmites, nearly equal in size and form, which gave rise to the name; and where a large and deep hollow, with a small aperture or entrance, is called the Devil's Bake-oven; it is so deep and dark, that we could not see the bottom of it. The room is very low, decreasing from ten to five feet in height; but it led us soon into a loftier apartment, about thirty-six feet high, where the stalactites are more uniformly regular and perpendicular than general, for which reason it is called the Banister-Room, and on name could be more appropriate.

THE TAN-YARD, CATHEDRAL, ETC.

At the end of this apartment, the passage is again lowered to four feet, and requires the visitors to stoop considerably; but we were soon relieved by arriving at a large open space, which obliged us to descend by a ladder a perpendicular height of thirty feet, into a large and lofty apartment, called the Tan-Yard. This is one of the most beautiful and extraordinary of all the parts of the Cave we had yet seen. On the floor are several deep hollows, which suggested the idea of tan-pits; but that which particularly warrants the name given is the collection of large sheet masses of stalactitic matter, of a lightish-brown colour, hanging edgewise downward, like so many tanned skins, or hides of leather, suspended on rails or beams; the resemblance is perfect, and no effort of art could make it more so. In this same division of the Cave is a part which is called the Cathedral, and not unaptly so, as there are many portions where clustered pillars, lofty aisles, and groined roofs with stalactites depending, well warrant the appellation. In this portion of it is a double stalagmite, with a hollow seat between two upright pillars, like the ancient stone chair in which the kings of Scotland were crowned, and immediately over this seat is the most beautiful canopy that can be conceived. It is circular in shape, and about the size and form of the sounding-boards suspended over the pulpits

of the episcopal churches in England; but its chief beauty consists in this—that the stalactites here fall in graceful folds like the richest drapery. The under part of the canopy is of a lightish-brown colour, from the admixture of ferruginous clay with the petrified mass; while all around its outer edge is a fringe of drapery still more soft and flowing in its folds, yet pure as alabaster, and white as the driven snow. This is called the French Crown, but the Coronation Canopy would be a better name. It is, however, the most extraordinary formation, for beauty of shape and material, yet seen in the Cave.

THE DRUM-ROOM, ETC.

THE next apartment to this is smaller in extent, and about twenty feet in height. It is called the Drum-Room, a name it derives from a most singular wall or partition of sheet-stalactite, like the hides of tanned leather, before described, or the drapery of the canopy over the throne. The thickness of the sheets is not more than half-an-inch; but in this instance they descend from the roof to touch the floor, though still preserving their waving folds, and resemble a curtain dividing two rooms. On striking the largest fold of this singular partition, near one of its sides, it gives out a deep sound, like that of a bass drum; and as the succeeding portions of the same substance, which have their folds narrower and narrower, are afterwards struck, they give out other sounds, more or less grave or acute according to the diameter of the fold, each having its separate notes like the horns in a Russian band, or the pipes of a large organ.

At the end of this apartment is a flight of steps, by which we ascended seven feet perpendicular; and this brought us to a narrow passage, not more than nine feet high. Walking through this, we came to a descending ladder of ten feet in depth, which landed us on the floor of the largest apartment yet visited. This is called the Ball-Room. It has a slight curvature or sweep in its length, and runs at right angles to the passage by which we approached it. The floor, which is of hard and compact clay, is perfectly level; and the space being a hundred feet long, thirty-six broad, and twenty-five high, forms as fine a ball-room as most cities possess; and far more curious, if not more beautiful. In this singular apartment, besides the rich stalactites which cover the walls and roof, there are two isolated pillars or stalagmites, rising from the floor. On one of these, called the National Candlestick, lights are usually placed; and the other, called Paganini's Statue, is used for a music-stand, when balls are given in the cave. There would be ample room for two hundred persons to dance at the same time here, without inconvenience, at a

distance of more than five hundred feet within the entrance of the cave.

Leading out from this Ball-Room is a singular little apartment, called the Dressing-Room, to enter which it is necessary to stoop very low, as the entrance is not more than four feet high. Immediately opposite to this entrance is an immense pillar-like stalactite, descending from the roof, with its extreme point scarcely a foot from the floor, and resembling the straightened tusk of some huge mammoth of the antediluvian world.

In the Ball-Room are also portions bearing the names of the Side-Board and the Town-Clock, from resemblances suggesting these appellations. Leading onward from this room is a gradual sloping ascent, of about forty feet, over a part which is called the Frenchman's Hill. It appears that some time since a French traveller visited this Cave, and was conducted through it by the guide in the usual way. They had completed their examination of it, and were on their return out; when, on reaching this spot, the lights of both were extinguished, without their possessing the means of rekindling them. Fortunately, the guide was sufficiently familiar with all the passages, winding and intricate as some of them are, to be enabled to conduct the traveller safely through the darkness; giving this name, however, to the spot where the lights went out, to commemorate the event. An American gentleman hearing this story some time after, and believing, with that self-confidence which is so characteristic of the nation, that he could achieve the same feat, resolved to try the experiment; so, sending his companions a sufficient distance ahead, to deprive himself of the benefit of their lights, he undertook to find his way out from the ball-room to the entrance, in darkness and alone. He had not proceeded far, however, before he lost his footing, and fell into a pit or opening, where he lay, not much injured by his fall, but utterly unable to make his distant companions hear his cries for their help. At length, however, these, finding his absence so much longer than they thought reasonable, returned to seek him, and finding him in the unexpected resting-place into which he had fallen, they lifted him up out of the pit, and from this circumstance they named it "Patterson's Grave," by which it will probably always be known. — *Buckingham's America.*

(To be continued.)

THE CORNISH WRECKERS AND THE DEATH SHIP.

BEFORE the care of coasting vessels was confided to a race of men of the existing experience and talent, the wrecks along this

part of the coast used to be frequent; and they were the more frightful, because it was rarely the case that a solitary individual survived to relate from what port the vessel came, and whither it was bound. Within the last thirty years, these disasters have been fewer, and occurred only when storms of great violence came on suddenly, or through the mistake of one headland for another in misty weather. But though coasting vessels were those which were once most frequently lost upon this iron shore, the long continuance of westerly winds, and errors in reckoning, caused many a disaster to foreign ships of burthen, as well as to those of our own country; and in general no more was known of any ship cast away here, or of her crew, than the cargo and fragments, strewn over miles of the shore at low water, might indicate. No ship could hold together an hour in a gale on this fearful coast, unless flung upon some very favourable spot at high tide. Such spots are few; the sea breaks, for the most part, against precipices of great height. One vessel, of which we saw some relics, was never seen entire, neither her name, nation, nor the fate of her crew, was ascertained. She had been lost, it was supposed, late in the night; for on the preceding evening, at sunset, no sail was seen in the horizon with a telescope. It was blowing fresh; and in the morning some planks were found, and foreign kegs of butter, which, with other circumstances, led the people to believe that the property must have been Dutch; no bodies, no clothes, no portions of the masts or rigging were stranded; the spot where the shipwreck occurred was only guessed at by a few fragments of the rib timbers being discovered jammed among the rocks; all besides had been taken into the fathomless deep. In one case, a Newfoundland dog was the sole survivor of a ship's living cargo; in another, a black man reached the shore through the surf, but died before he could tell the name of the vessel to which he belonged.

Nothing can be more untrue than the charge of Cornish barbarity, since in no part of England shipwrecked persons meet with greater kindness; though it is but seldom that this kindness can be put to the test by the escape of any animated being to experience it. On the wreck of the *Anson* frigate, thirty years ago, not only were the survivors most kindly treated, but the efforts made to assist in the escape of the crew were all which were possible in such a dreadful scene. One individual, whose name is to us unknown, or we would print it,—one whose name deserves to be remembered far before the destroyers of their species, of whom national immorality makes its molten gods,—came down to the

spot. The frigate lay with her bottom seawards, and the waves rolled over her, and fell in "horrible cascade" on the shore side, and up the sandy beach, carrying the living and the dead with them, and upon the recoil, bearing them back into the ocean depths. The only assistance that could be given was by venturing as far as possible into the surf, and snatching the half-drowned, that could be reached, out of it,—an effort not to be made at such times without much hazard. The individual to whom we allude was a methodist teacher, a humble man, who had come down on horseback to the spot. He rode intrepidly into the foam, and succeeded in getting hold of two of the crew, one after the other, whom he saved; but on venturing the third time into the raging surf, as he was grasping at another, a wave swept both horse and rider away, in the presence of hundreds of persons, who could render no assistance; and this man, to us nameless, found in this way the proudest death and interment that is destined for humanity—losing his life in the act of trying to save a fellow-creature from destruction, and having the bosom of the ocean for his sepulchre.

The charge of want of hospitality or kindness in the Cornish to shipwrecked persons, then, is not true. We have said that vessels break up almost as soon as they touch the shore, which for miles is strewn with portions of the cargo and timbers. These the country people pick up, and the finder too often appropriates. It is from this circumstance that the Cornish have been accused of barbarity and wreck-plundering; the vulgar had a notion formerly that the property saved from shipwreck belonged to any one who was on board that survived, and if no one survived, to anybody who might pick it up from the beach. They were taught by a claim of some lord of the manor in former time, one no more just than their own, that the ship and cargo were not the property of the owners; and they thought what they secured with labour, floating upon the sea, or strewn upon the rocks, sometimes on their own land, they might appropriate as justly as a claimant under feudal usages. The right of the owners, acknowledged by reason and justice, has, in the present time, its due effect to a considerable extent, and will no doubt be fully established; but a salvage allowance will be politic, for otherwise little will be saved where the property is sometimes found strewn along miles of coast, the sea bearing it about, and the security of it only possible to be effected at the moment it is discovered. The plunder of wrecked goods in this way, then, was a strife between two parties, who had neither of them any right

to it. Wrecks happening below high-water mark, and goods washed on shore so found, were, more properly, the right of the public, by a private wrong, as a droit of admiralty, if the owners were to be plundered of their property at all. To the claim of the lords of manors who had grants of "the royalties of wrecks," Pope alludes in the lines,

"Then fall against his Cornish lands they roar,
And two rich shipwrecks bless the lucky shore."

When an example of this sort of plunder was anciently set by the lord, it was no wonder if the serf availed himself of the same immorality, standing more in need of its produce. It is in vain that custom, or right, or authority, can be pleaded to justify practices that, whether emanating from the prince or the subject, admit of justification by no code of equity, no moral principle, nothing except the lawyer-made law, that sanctions what is wrong on the side of power, because it is a wrong of long standing; here we see its effect.

The humbler classes in Cornwall were much softened and civilized by the preaching of Wesley and his followers; the miners, even on the wilder coasts, are a very kind and civil body of men, though, at the same time, none are more sensible of an indignity offered to them. We must not confound them with those who work underground in the coal counties, and their brutal habits; even the men in the metallic mines in the north of England were once contrasted to us by a gentleman there, with a few Cornish men he had in his employ, to the disadvantage of the northerners. Every day the Cornish men shifted their clothes after labour, and washed themselves; but not so their fellow-workmen, with whom ablution was rare, and they had seldom clothes to change. In manner, too, they were milder, and better behaved. A century ago it was a different thing; they did not then, according to report, want bad examples; in the superstitious days, when the clergyman of the parish had his familiar spirit, according to vulgar belief, the plunder of wrecks might have been made a charge with greater justice.

In those days, wreck picked up from the sea-shore was styled "a god-send." The well-known story of "A Wreck!" being cried at the church-door, and the parson with difficulty restraining the people a moment, on some excuse, until he got down from the pulpit himself into the aisle, and then said, "My good friends, let us all start fair," might be true enough, if we believed that an educated man, even in the "good old times," could be guilty of such an indecency. It is true, we were told, and have no reason to doubt the correctness of our information, that in those

days an individual who had been well educated, and did not want the good things of this life, but who was a drunkard, and in every respect a highly immoral man, once tied up the leg of an ass at night, and hanging a lanthorn from its neck, drove it himself along the summit of the high cliffs on that part of the northern coast where he lived, in order that the halting motion of the animal might imitate the plunging of a vessel under sail, and thus tempt ships to run in, from imagining there was sea-room, where destruction was inevitable. The same individual was accused of having cut the fingers off the dead body of a lady which was washed on shore from a wreck, to secure the rings which decorated them. The very rumour now that any man had been guilty of such an atrocity, would expel him from society in Cornwall, and from the county itself; but for such instances of inhumanity, on the part of any class, whatever might have happened a century or two ago, there is not the remotest foundation in modern times.

We cannot avoid mentioning here, as being, in some degree, connected with the appearance of what people call a death-ship, on one part of this coast, the result of an inquiry we made upon the subject. Our informant had lived there all his days, and told us that in his father's boyhood there was a person residing in the village of T— who was distinguished for his oppressive conduct, his private vices, and the possession of property which was acquired by sinister means. In our informant's words,—

"He was a man well off in the parish; but that was nothing to him."

"Did you know him?"

"No; it was in my father's youth; but he declared it was true, and he was not given to falsehood; it is fourscore years ago; his name was —."

We shall not mention the name, as some of his descendants may be alive, if he had descendants, and proceed to what our informant said further.

"What did the people think of him?"

"I can't say, because it was before I was born; but the death-ship story pretty well explains that, I should think."

"The death-ship! what was that?"

"Why, Mr. —, drunk one half his time, and given to all kinds of bad conduct when he was sober, was taken very ill at last, yet seemed to have no care about his condition; and, when he could use his tongue, swore and blasphemed as hard as ever. Just before he died, a frightful thing occurred, which leads me to the purport of your question about the death-ship."

"Well, what was that; he plundered one wreck too many, I suppose?"

"No; a day or two before he breathed his

last, a party of men were working near the top of the cliffs, where they were several hundred feet in elevation; the weather was hazy over the sea; when, on a sudden, one of them exclaimed, 'Do you see that; there is a ship close in with the shore.' All the party saw the vessel looming through the haze, tall, black, and square-rigged, but they could observe nothing further, as it disappeared seawards in the mist, and quickly vanished from their sight. There was no wind, and the impossibility of navigating without it struck these men, so that it became a subject of conversation in the church-town.

"In a hollow, at the foot of the cliffs before mentioned, there was a considerable space of sand, dry at low-water, and some persons had gone thither to collect shell-fish a day or two after the preceding occurrence, when they saw a tall, dark vessel, run in almost close without a breath of wind, her sails appearing full, and of a deep black colour. The coast abounded in sunken rocks, among which she seemed to thread a tortuous course without touching one. No living thing was upon the deck, which they could discern from stem to stern; the wheel had no helmsman; no seaman was on the look-out, and none hove the lead; at which sight the observers felt a thrill, as if it was something, they knew not what, out of the ordinary course of things, particularly as, at the same moment, it lay-to, and the sails began to shiver. Thus riveted to the spot by a sensation which they found it impossible to describe, the sails again filled, and the ship appeared to glide away until it was reduced to a mere speck, and disappeared in an instant, apparently at the distance of leagues, much as the figures of a magic lanthorn glide along a whitened wall. Some thought, for the moment, it was a deception of their sight, and rubbed their eyes; for the whole appearance did not occupy any perceptible duration of time, and yet there was time enough for the strange object to fix their attention, and allow them the most perfect examination of her form and tenantless deck. After looking for some minutes at the broad expanse of sea before them, upon which, to the remotest point of the horizon, not one solitary sail appeared, they hastened to the church-town, eager to communicate what they had just seen, when the first news they heard was that the well-known and notorious Mr. — had just expired.—*England in the Nineteenth Century.*

ON THE ACTION OF LIGHTNING CONDUCTORS.

At the meeting of the Electrical Society on Tuesday evening, a paper on this subject,

by Mr. Charles Walker, the secretary, was read. The author entered into a very close investigation of the most important experiments that have been adduced in illustration of the nature of these instruments, and stated that discharges of Leyden batteries have been very generally selected as representatives of lightning flashes. He then shewed the great difference between the visible character of the two flashes, and analyzed the cause on which each depends, demonstrating that the only case in which the resemblance is in any degree to be traced is when a Leyden discharge fractures the glass, and passes directly between the coatings; and that in all other cases the said discharge is the result of two forces acting counter to each other. Thus he reaches his first conclusion, that the discharge of a Leyden jar does not resemble a flash of lightning; and therefore that Leyden jars should not be employed in these experiments. He then said that many points on which philosophers of the present day differ are in connexion with the results of the Leyden experiments; and hence, if it can be shewn that these experiments ought to be excluded, the at present complicated inquiry will be much simplified. He proceeded to trace the close resemblance between the discharge of a prime conductor and a cloud, illustrating his opinion by the aid of the magnificent machine belonging to the Polytechnic Institution; and shewed that experiments with this conductor are in all essential points legitimate. He then described an extensive series of experiments to prove that a wire on which sparks are thrown from the prime conductor represents a lightning-rod; and then that sparks will pass from such a wire, and therefore from a lightning-rod, to vicinal conducting bodies. This last position was illustrated in a general manner by an assistant holding in his hand a glass rod surmounted by a brass ball; the ball was connected by stout wire with the gas-burners of the room, and thus when sparks were thrown on it from the conductor, the electricity passed into a good discharging train to the earth. Now, while this took place, the application of a piece of metal to any part of the wire produced a spark; and not only so, but the same could be obtained from any of the gas-burners in any part of the room; and even when the writer descended into the workshops, two stories below the machine, sparks could be obtained from the burners there, which were indeed very much out of the direct line of circuit, so great is the desire of the electric current to use a wide path. However, as the wires in this, as in several other similar experiments, were not directly between the conductor and the earth, the following arrangement was made, which answers every condition, and the

general result of which proves that the wires above described do act as lightning-rods. Attached to the prime conductor of the machine was a thick brass rod, terminating in a five-inch ball; immediately beneath this was erected a similar rod surmounted by a ball. This rod was screwed into a small brass disc on the floor, and was considered a perfect representation of a lightning rod, when sparks or flashes were passed into it. Near this a shorter and smaller rod (also terminating in a ball) was held; when the end of this rod touched the brass disc, no sparks passed between the two, when it did not touch, sparks passed in abundance. Much of the value of the inquiry was shewn to depend on this experiment. If the former state of things represents what occurs in nature, there is no danger of a lateral spark; but if the latter, the danger is great. That metallic contact in this experiment prevented the appearance of sparks is an experimental proof of the safety resulting from the metallic connexions formerly recommended. These latter results are given in explanation of the well-known experiment of the two metallic discs; and Mr. Walker shews that no lateral discharge takes place between these discs, because the vicinal metal is in contact with the lower disc. While, therefore, the author agrees in recognising the value of lightning-rods, he has strong reason to believe that this lateral spark will occur unless proper precautions are taken; and though he differs in some degree from others, he does so in a feeling of perfect good-fellowship, and expresses a willingness to forsake his opinions whenever they are shewn to be untenable. He states, in conclusion, that even if he is in error, still science will have gained something; for the received opinions will then have been able to withstand another assault, and will only stand the firmer.—*Times*.

UNIFORMITY OF APPEARANCE OF MEN AND WOMEN IN AMERICA, AND THE CAUSES.

In England, fat and corpulent men, especially above the age of forty, are frequently met with; but in America, such persons are rarely seen: the *pleasures* of the table, as they are called,—though often bringing in their train the *pains* of indigestion, headache, nausea, and nightmare,—not being indulged in, by any class in this country, to so great an extent as in England. The people of America are too busy, and too much engrossed with preparations for the future, to devote much of the present to the habits which make so many corpulent men in England, and which cause the tendency to corpulency to be transmitted, like the

gout, hereditarily, from generation to generation. There is greater uniformity of stature, shape, feature, and expression, among both the men and the women in America, than there is in England; which is the more remarkable, because, though the English population is descended from a great variety of original stocks, Celtic, Saxon, Roman, Dane, and Norman, yet many centuries have elapsed since any large addition has been made to its population by immigration; and foreigners are not often even intermingled with us by marriage. Here, however, not only has there been great diversities in the original stock, British, Dutch, French, Spanish, Danish, Swedish, and German; but these varieties and admixtures are kept up by perpetual immigration of persons from all these distant nations. Yet the amalgamation of the whole seems to settle itself into a much greater uniformity of national stature, physiognomy, and general appearance in America than is the case in England.

The principal causes of this uniformity appear to me to be these—first, the general equality of condition in the several classes of the population, none being very rich, and none being very poor, but all provided with reasonable competency; so that the style of living, dressing, and enjoyment is pretty nearly the same with all, except the few at either extreme of condition, which does not, however, perceptibly affect the uniformity of the mass. Second, the general equality of their lot in being all obliged to labour for subsistence; some in the higher departments of the law, medicine, tuition, and the direction of agricultural and commercial affairs; and others in the subordinate duties of handicraft and artisan occupations; but all to do something—and thus to be uniformly occupied, from morning till night, in labour of some kind or another. Hence, all persons rise early, and breakfast, dine, and sup at nearly the same hour, in the same town or district. There is no hauteur on the part of the richer, nor obsequiousness on the part of the poorer members of the community; no disputes about precedence between bankers or merchants, clergy or manufacturers, wholesale dealers and retailers; the barrister is not a greater man than the attorney, nor the physician superior to the surgeon, for these separate departments of law and medicine are united in the same individual; and the judges, the members of the legislature, and even the governor himself, mingle as freely with the humbler members of society as if they were wholly unconnected with office. Nor does this, as some might suppose, lessen, in the slightest degree, their dignity or efficiency; and I might cite an example of a similar state of things in a part of the British dominions—the island of Guernsey, where the

chief magistrate and civil governor, the venerable Daniel De Lisle Brock, may be seen in familiar conversation with some of the humblest inhabitants of the island, in their fields or in their streets, or accompanying him as he walks on foot to and from his country residence to the courthouse, where he presides as judge, and as head of the legislative as well as of the executive power; and yet no man's person is more beloved, or no man's authority more revered and respected than his, throughout all Europe.

This general uniformity of stature and appearance in the men and women of America, thus attempted to be accounted for, is accompanied with certain characteristics, which may be thus briefly described. The men are generally tall and slender in figure, more frequently above five feet ten inches than below it, and rarely exceeding three feet in circumference about the waist; the arms are long, the legs small, the chest narrow, the form not so frequently erect as slightly stooping, arising from carelessness of gait and hurry in walking; the head is small, but the features are long, the complexion pale, the eyes small and dark, the hair straight, the cheeks generally smooth or without whiskers or beard, and the whole expression and deportment is grave and serious. The women of America are not so tall in stature as the women of Europe generally, being oftener below five feet four inches than above it; of slender figure, without the fulness or rotundity and flowing lines of the Medicean statue, imperfect development of bust, small hands and feet, small and pretty features, pale complexions, dark eyes, a mincing gait, delicate health, and a grave rather than a gay or animated expression. If the men seem to be marked by a general uniformity of standard in personal appearance, the women are still more alike; and it is remarkable that there is far less of diversity in the condition and occupation of females than in that of males of the same rank and class of life in this country, for here all the daughters, except in the very humblest ranks, are brought up as young ladies; and all the wives are so unqualified to superintend household or any other labours, that all is done for them by servants or by slaves. Thus relieved from all necessity for exercising either their physical strength or mental capacities, they soon become feeble in health and indifferent towards society. In gay parties they are usually neglected, because they are married; and they are not so important as the English housewife or matron at home, because they are neither active mistresses of their own household, nor active trainers or educators of their children; neither are they called upon to be such frequent entertainers of friendly guests in the evening and social

circle, as married ladies and heads of families are in England.—*The Slave States of America.*

ELEPHANT-SHOOTING IN CEYLON.

In the vicinity of Trincomalee, abundance of game, from the lordly elephant downwards, is to be found; and this, in the opinion of many, more than counterbalances the disadvantages under which the station labours on account of its unhealthiness and complete isolation from the rest of the colony. Deer and elk are often shot within a mile of the fort; and within an hour's ride every kind of animal that exists on the island may be met with. Elephants, however, are rarely encountered in the immediate neighbourhood of the town, but within a few miles they frequently congregate in large herds. As these leviathans of the earth abound more in Ceylon than in any other part of the world, an account of the battues formed for their destruction may prove interesting, even to those who have long resided in India, for in no part of the Indian continent is elephant-shooting regarded as in Ceylon—an every-day and ordinary amusement.

Many Anglo-Indians, indeed, are sceptical as to the fact of a single bullet being sufficient to deprive an elephant of life, and are much inclined to doubt the truth of the accounts of elephant-shooting in Ceylon, which occasionally reach them through the medium of their public journals. Some of these *infidels* are wont to assimilate in their darkened minds the deeds of arms done by the sportsmen of Ceylon with those performed by one Falstaff against certain men in buckram. If, then, the facility with which an elephant may be killed astonishes the dwellers in the Carnatic, although so near the scene of action, it can, perhaps, be scarcely expected that implicit credence will be yielded to the *ipse dixit* of an unknown writer by the British public; but as the facts are notorious to all who have visited the island, I will, even at the risk of being considered a romancer, “a round unvarnished tale deliver,” touching the feats of arms performed against the monsters of the jungles of Ceylon.

In all parts of the island elephants are met with, but in the south-eastern provinces they chiefly abound. The face of the country in that direction is less covered with jungle than any other part of Ceylon, and the elephants come forth from the recesses of the forest into the large grass plains that frequently occur. Here is the usual rendezvous of sportsmen in search of elephants. Each individual of the party, who are seldom less numerous than three or four, provides himself with at least two double-barrelled

guns, the bore of which is, or ought to be, made to throw two-ounce balls. Some sporting authorities consider this large calibre unnecessary, and assert that a common musket-bullet, if well directed, will answer every purpose. But it is generally thought unsafe to trust to any but the heaviest metal, because a heavy ball, even should it not prove fatal, has the effect of staggering and disconcerting an elephant, and of thus affording time for a second discharge.

On perceiving a herd, the party and their numerous native attendants endeavour by shouting to irritate some individual to turn and charge them. This plan is usually attended with success. Some one of the elephants, provoked by the loud and insulting cries* of his persecutors, quits his fellows, and rushes towards the pursuers, who are always on foot, and somewhat dispersed, so as to effectually support each other by a flanking fire. The sportsman allows the charging brute to approach within a dozen yards, and then, aiming at that peculiar and deep depression of the skull which is observable immediately above the point where the upper surface of the trunk meets the head, delivers his fire. If the ball takes effect at the spot thus selected, it pierces the brain, which is easily reached through the honey-combed and thin bony substance in this part of the skull, and death instantaneously ensues. But should the bullet strike wide of this singular scoop in the forehead, the second barrel is immediately discharged, and the chances are, that the elephant either falls, or, blinded with the smoke, and furious with pain, sheers off without injuring his antagonist, or wildly rushes past him. In this latter case, the rest of the party pour in a converging volley, which rarely fails to bring down the enraged and now impotent monster, whose dying agonies are speedily terminated by some humane bullet.

First-rate shots, however, seldom require the co-operation of their companions in arms. In the generality of cases, the advancing monster, pierced by a single bullet, falls dead at their feet, but it occasionally happens that the elephant raises his trunk above his head in such a manner as to render it difficult, if not impossible, to aim at any vital spot. When this occurs, there is no alternative but to fire at this uplifted trunk, and under cover of the smoke to avoid his charge. When thus foiled by his wary enemy, the elephant vents his rage on the first object, animate or inanimate, that attracts his attention. Many native servants and bystanders have in this manner fallen victims to the infuriated animal, when thus excited by European sportsmen.

* “*Du! da!*” is the usual cry of the natives on these occasions. The word corresponds with John Bull's “Get out!”

ROGUE-ELEPHANTS.

WHEN an elephant is found alone, he is far more dangerous than when in the society of a herd. On this account, a solitary individual is usually termed a "rogue-elephant." The natives are of opinion that these "rogues" have been expelled from the society of their kind for some high misdemeanour, and to this cause their peculiar ferocity is attributable. Certain it is, that there is no exception to this remark regarding the "rogues," and whatever may be the original cause of their taste for solitude, it is highly probable that the violence done to the gregarious habits that characterize their species has the effect of producing in them sullenness and its concomitant, ferocity.—*Rambles in Ceylon.*

AUGUST.

By the Author of "Regulus," and other Tragedies.

THE scarlet poppies skirt the ripening corn;
The zephyr wave its masses like the sea;
The tiny rustic sallies with the dawn,
To keep from pilfering birds the produce free.
The Sun's own flower, its orisfamb display'd,
Turns with the Day-god's triumph through the spheres;
The lady's bower, in Jessamine array'd,
The lady there—best, beautiful, appears!
The early apple now, and now the pear,
Make orchard rows luxuriant to the sight;
The asters glisten in the gay parterre;
The varied marigolds expand in light.
And now, the reapers toll—the sheaves are bound—
The harvest wains drag home—feasting and songs go round.

ANARAJAHPOORA, THE ANCIENT CAPITAL OF CEYLON.

THIS city, and the populous and cultivated country that once surrounded it, are now transformed into an uninhabited desert. Its ruins are situate about mid-way between the northern extremity of the island and Kandy, from which place it is most easily approached. The investigation of the annals of, and the legends concerning, a place so famous in island story as Anarajahpoora will naturally lead to the consideration of that highly interesting period of its history, when Taprobane, as Ceylon was called by the Romans, contributed largely to supply the demands of the luxury that marked the decline of the "sometime" mistress of the world.

One of the principal objects of attraction to the antiquary who wanders amid the ruins of Anarajahpoora is the Sowamahapaaya. The ancient documents relating to the city concur in stating that this was formerly a majestic structure of nine stories. Of these, none are now in existence; but sixteen hundred stone pillars, upon which the building was erected, are still in tolerable preservation. This immense number are

disposed in a perfect square; the side of which is about two hundred feet in length. Along each side, at nearly equal distances, forty pillars are ranged. The interval between the rows varies from two to three feet, and the square of the pillars, which, with few exceptions, are uniform in size and height, is two feet.

Around the Sowamahapaaya, which was probably a temple dedicated to the worship of Boodhoo, are six Dagobas, or immense solid domes, the altitude of which is equal to their greatest diameter. They are for the most part surmounted by spiral cones, that in some measure relieve the vastness and massiveness of their gigantic proportions. Like the Pyramids of Egypt, they were designed to commemorate the reign of the monarch to whose honour they were raised. In either case, the simplicity and solidity of the construction have defied the ravages of time, and insured its permanence. But the handiwork of the ignorant labourers of Ceylon, though it may rival and even surpass the massive greatness, wants the elegance and grandeur that belongs to the more majestic productions of the Egyptian architects. The Dagobas have a ponderous and ignoble appearance; their magnitude is, however, almost unparalleled, and elicits the admiration or the contempt of the European pilgrim, who may either applaud the perseverance or ridicule the injudicious taste of the ancient islanders. The solid contents of the largest of them have been estimated to exceed four hundred and fifty thousand cubic yards; its greatest diameter and altitude are equal, and measure two hundred and seventy feet.

The extent of Anarajahpoora can still be faintly traced. Its perimeter* is believed to have exceeded sixty miles, and the ancient walls that encircled the city, and are in some places visible, give some probability to this conjecture. Nearly in the centre of the space formerly occupied by the city, the present mean village, which still retains the name of Anarajahpoora, remains to mark the site of the fallen capital.

During the last ten centuries, Anarajahpoora has been neglected by the monarchs who have successively ruled the destinies of Ceylon. The central position and numerous advantages enjoyed by Kandy would seem to have attracted their attention, and induced them to abandon the unhealthy site of the former seat of government; but, prior to the desertion of the ancient capital, Ceylon attained the highest degree of prosperity which it has, either in former or later ages, experienced. From its discovery in the reign of the first Claudius, it rapidly rose to commercial importance, to which its geographical position, centrally situated

* Twice that of London.

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with regard to the eastern confines of the Roman empire and the more remote India, mainly contributed. The merchants from China and the Eastern Archipelago awaited at Ceylon, as a mid-way station, the periodical arrival of the Roman fleets, which, taking advantage of the south-west monsoon, usually accomplished the voyage from the Red Sea to the coast of Taprobane in six weeks. The silks of China, the precious stones of Ceylon, and the rich spices and aromatics of India, were the articles of trade principally sought for by the Roman navigators. In lieu of these trifling but costly objects of luxury, the Romans were unable to barter the manufactures of Europe, and were thus reduced to the necessity of exchanging their silver for the productions of the Eastern world.*

It was estimated that eight hundred thousand pounds sterling were thus annually expended. Of this sum, which must have appeared immense to the Indian merchants of that age, the capital of Ceylon largely participated. There is good reason to believe that the whole of the extensive public buildings and vast Dagobas which adorned, and of which the ruins still indicate the position of Anarajahpoora, were designed and erected during this era of opulence and national prosperity.

It appears that the Kandian provinces were not, at this remote period, subject to the rule of the sovereign of the sea-board provinces. The Kandian king "possessed the mountains, the elephants, and the luminous carbuncle;" while the rival monarch "enjoyed the more solid riches of domestic industry, foreign trade, and the capacious harbour of Trinqueemale, which received and dismissed the fleets of the East and West."† With the decay of the Roman Empire, the lucrative trade, to which the historian here alludes, gradually declined. The profitable traffic was at length monopolized by the Persian navigators. The subjects of the great king sailed from the Persian Gulf, along the western shores of Hindoostan, to the coast of Ceylon. But, in the dark ages that succeeded the ruin of the Roman world, the productions and manufactures of the East, which consisted of the luxuries rather than the necessities of life, sunk in the public estimation, and ultimately became so little esteemed, that the Oriental trade, which at one time threatened to exhaust the wealth of the empire, dwindled into obscurity and utter insignificance.

From being the chief emporium of commerce in the East, Taprobane again merged into the barbarism from which the influx of the polite subjects of Rome and Persia

had in some degree raised her. At this period, the usual concomitants of national poverty and distress began to appear. Domestic tumults and intestine wars succeeded to the long interval of calm that had characterized what may be termed the golden age of Ceylon. Famine and the sword rapidly thinned the superabundant population, and reduced the island to the degenerate state in which it was found by the Portuguese of the sixteenth century.—*Rambles in Ceylon.*

VANITY AND FALSEHOOD OF THE PERSIANS.

It is true at the present day what Herodotus said of the Persians of old—that "they esteem themselves the most excellent of mankind." Flattery and falsehood are two prominent features of their character;—the former they call "laughing at his beard," the latter, Saadi thus speaks of:—"Falsehood, mixed with good intentions, is preferable to truth tending to excite strife." This latter is so proverbial amongst them that they do not deny it, nor is it at all esteemed a national reproach. I heard a Persian once admit, that from his habitual custom of falsehood, he *could* not speak the truth if he tried. I have even heard the habit of deceiving considered as a *virtue*, and most plausibly argued upon as such: "Suppose the Ketkodesh of a village is able to protect the lives or property of the people by falsehood—is he not justified, or even bound, to have recourse to it?" Falsehood may be deemed, therefore, a principle ingredient in their society as a social body; and to avoid the effects of government tyranny and oppression, they have recourse to all sorts of lying and duplicity.

But in the domestic life of Persia this habit has an appalling effect. Servants practise it with astonishing hardihood, and it leads to those barefaced frauds which are common amongst them. Cheating is so well understood to be a part of the service, or rather the gains by it, that they adopt it without remorse, or having any sense of its being wrong. But this demoralizing principle extends into the bosom of families; and the finer feelings of confidence, love, and respect amongst each other, are uprooted by suspicion, jealousy, and mistrust—those venomous enemies to all domestic peace.

The urbanity of the Persians is generally admitted; it is said of them that they are the politest people in the East. Fond of the marvellous, and of most imaginative mind, they carry their courtesy so far as to coin the most wonderful stories merely for your amusement: they deceive in order to please you. Their vanity, too, has something to

* Gibbon's Roman Empire.

† Gibbon.

do with this, since it proves the versatility of their genius, and their great desire to be thought well of.

The lower orders of Persia are great observers of ceremonies between each other, and use the most courteous phrases. This I have noticed amongst the numerous servants in the "kaveh khanehs," or waiting rooms; they are as polite as their masters, the Khans, within.—*Three Years in Persia.*

The Gatherer.

"Tails" of Rats.—According to the *Bath Herald* (referring to an exhibition actually taking place in that fashionable city), a noted ratcatcher, whose veracity had long been disputed respecting the number of rats that he declared he had caught, hit on the following mode of certifying his statements—to preserve the tail of every rat destroyed; and he has now collected "a waggon load, or forty-three bushels, which, with thirty perfectly white rats, he has been lately exhibiting in this city." (*Bath*).

The Worth of Man.—There is one remark which reflections of this kind are almost certain to call forth in a large and respectable class of persons among us—viz., that to assert the worth of man is an arrogant delusion, and one that puffs up men with vanity. But this objection implies the absurd mistake of supposing that the loftier the standard by which we judge ourselves, the more and not the less nearly shall we seem to reach its full height. What is all that is held most holy—what all the godlike men whom religious tradition canonizes and glorifies—but forms of a divine idea ever to be kept before us, and approached, though in each individual most imperfectly realized? And when, in other words we speak of the worth of man, which philosophy explains, history displays in action, and poetry sings of and makes visible to the soul, we but declare that there is a greatness of human nature which rebukes the littleness of each, and yet is the common blessing and support of us all.

A Simple Remedy.—We this week saw an interesting little boy writhing under extreme agony from the sting of a bee inflicted upon him in the hay-field. After he had suffered for some time, a small quantity of honey was rubbed upon the almost imperceptible wound, which so completely extracted the virus that he became almost instantly free from pain, and resumed his sports more joyously than before, from the contrast between pain and pleasure. In the absence of honey, treacle, or probably sugar moistened with a drop or two of water, would be found equally efficacious.—*Leeds Mercury.*

Curiosity at Windsor Castle.—A very extraordinary and interesting natural curiosity has lately arrived at Windsor Castle, where it has been placed upon a large pedestal in the grand vestibule (leading to the Waterloo Chamber), to which the public are admitted. It was recently in the royal conservatory at Kew (having been sent as a present to the sovereign of this country from China), whence it has been transferred to Windsor Castle, and evinces, in a peculiar manner, the extraordinary perseverance and ingenuity of the Chinese, who, during the progress of the growth of plants have discovered the means of so transforming or training their roots as to make them assume the shapes of various animals. The singular curiosity referred to is supposed by some to be the root of the large Chinese dog-rose, and by others to be the root of the vine. It is about three feet in length, and of a proportionate height, and bears a close and extraordinary resemblance to the shape of a lion, having the legs and feet, head, tail, and body, with its shaggy mane, most rudely perfect. By what means the Chinese acquire this mode of expanding and shaping the roots of plants is still a mystery, although many ingenious inquiries and researches have been made on the subject. This, however, does not appear so extraordinary as the power some of the Chinese possess of dwarfing plants; for it is known they will produce an oak, not more than five or six inches in height, bearing acorns; and the same with respect to orange and lemon trees; of the same dwarfish character, also bearing fruit. Some specimens of these trees have occasionally been brought to this country, but none have lived for any length of time. The root referred to is well worth the attention of the curious.

It is temper which creates the bliss of home, or disturbs its comforts. It is not in the collision of intellect that domestic peace loves to nestle. Her home is in the forbearing nature—in the yielding spirit—in the calm pleasures of a mild disposition, anxious to give and receive happiness.

The Maneuvring Mother.

Taxation.—The amount of taxes imposed in Great Britain, in 1841, was:—Land-tax, 1,183,585*l.*; other taxes, 51,997,000*l.* In France—Land-tax, 23,250,000*l.*; other taxes, 17,500,000*l.* In Prussia—Land-tax, 3,994,000*l.*; other taxes, 3,667,000*l.* Austria—Land-tax, 8,795,000*l.*; other taxes, 7,700,000*l.* The probate and legacy duty, 1,138,000*l.*, not paid by land-holders. From the commencement of the reign of George III. to 1834, 6,840,540 acres of waste land were enclosed.

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